Machine Learning

Topic 15: Reinforcement Learning

(thanks in part to Bill Smart at Washington University in St. Louis)

Learning Types

- Supervised learning:
  - (Input, output) pairs of the function to be learned can be perceived or are given.

    Back-propagation in Neural Nets

- Unsupervised Learning:
  - No information about desired outcomes given

    K-means clustering

- Reinforcement learning:
  - Reward or punishment for actions

    Q-Learning

Reinforcement Learning

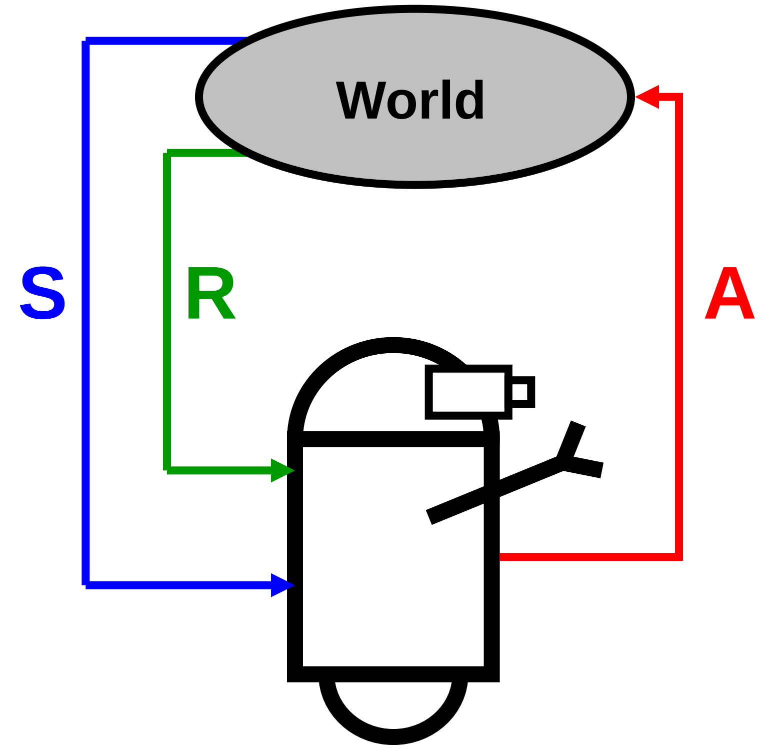
- Task
  - Learn how to behave to achieve a goal
  - Learn through experience from trial and error

- Examples
  - Game playing: The agent knows when it wins, but doesn’t know the appropriate action in each state along the way

  - Control: a traffic system can measure the delay of cars, but not know how to decrease it.

Basic RL Model

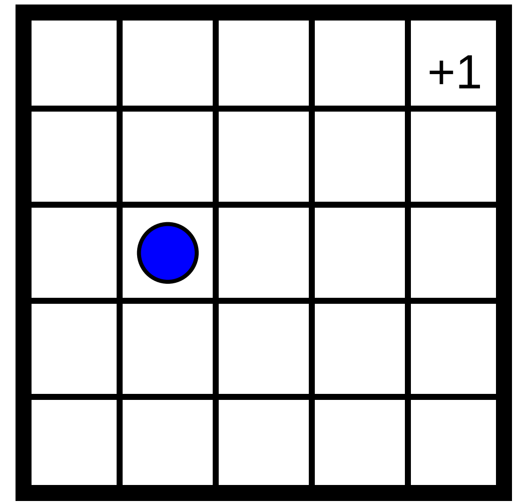
1. Observe state, s_t
2. Decide on an action, a_t
3. Perform action
4. Observe new state, s_{t+1}
5. Observe reward, r_{t+1}
6. Learn from experience
7. Repeat



•Goal: Find a control policy that will maximize the observed rewards over the lifetime of the agent

An Example: Gridworld

- Canonical RL domain
  - States are grid cells
  - 4 actions: N, S, E, W
  - Reward for entering top right cell
  - -0.01 for every other move

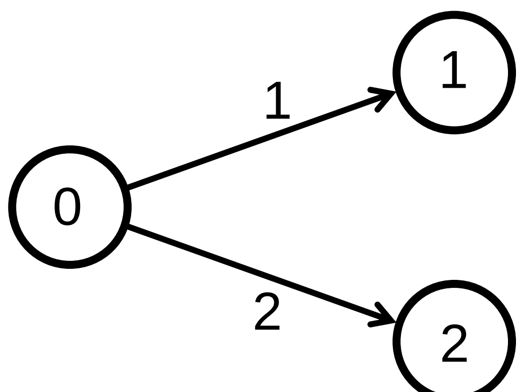


Mathematics of RL

- Before we talk about RL, we need to cover some background material
  - Simple decision theory
  - Markov Decision Processes
  - Value functions
  - Dynamic programming

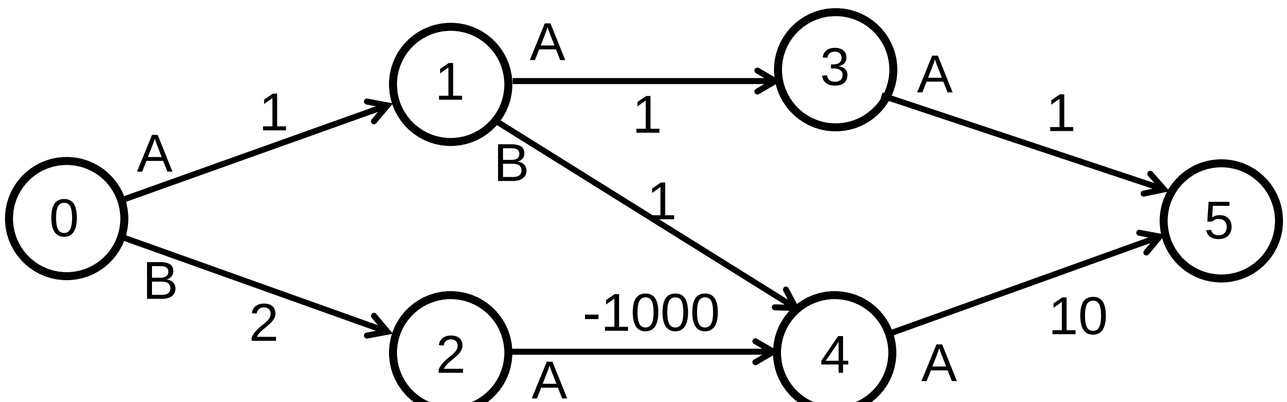
Making Single Decisions

- Single decision to be made
  - Multiple discrete actions
  - Each action has a reward associated with it
- Goal is to maximize reward
  - Not hard: just pick the action with the largest reward
- State 0 has a value of 2
  - Sum of rewards from taking the best action from the state



Markov Decision Processes

- We can generalize the previous example to multiple sequential decisions
  - Each decision affects subsequent decisions
- This is formally modeled by a Markov Decision Process (MDP)



Markov Decision Processes

- Formally, a MDP is
  - A set of states, $S = \{s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n\}$
  - A set of actions, $A = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m\}$
  - A reward function, $R: S \times A \times S \rightarrow \Re$
  - A transition function, $P_{ij}^{a} = P(s_{t+1} = j \mid s_t = i, a_t = a)$
    - Sometimes $T: S \times A \rightarrow S$

- We want to learn a policy, $\pi: S \rightarrow A$
  - Maximize sum of rewards we see over our lifetime

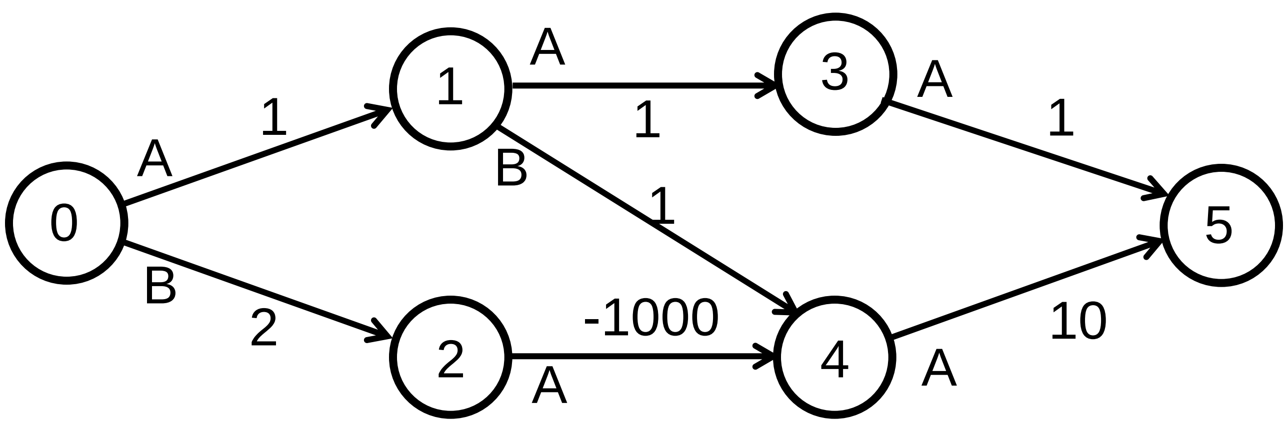
Policies

- A policy $\pi(s)$ returns what action to take in state s.
- There are 3 policies for this MDP

Policy 1: $0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 5$

Policy 2: $0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 5$

Policy 3: $0 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 5$



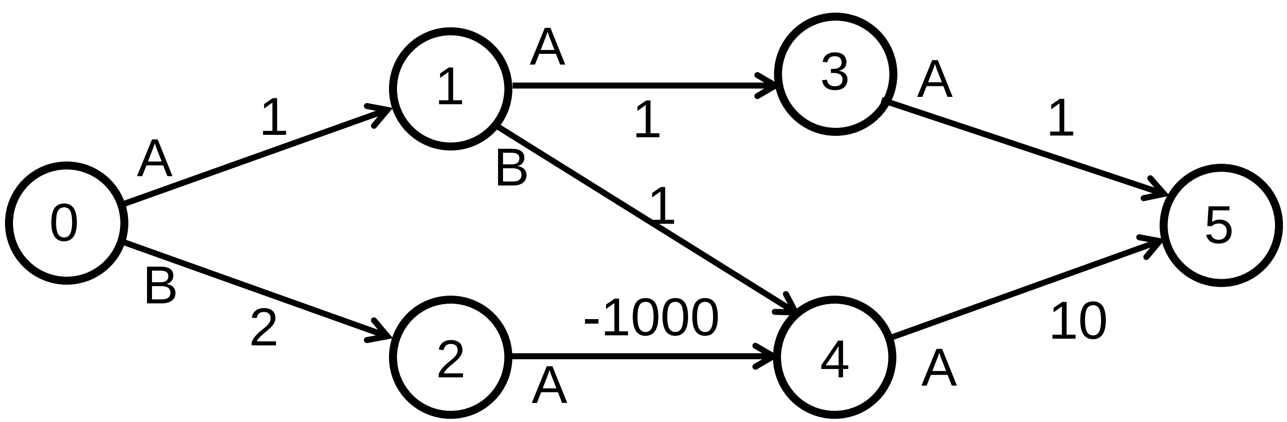
Comparing Policies

- Which policy is best?
- Order them by how much reward they see

Policy 1: 0 →1 →3 →5 = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3

Policy 2: 0 →1 →4 →5 = 1 + 1 + 10 = 12

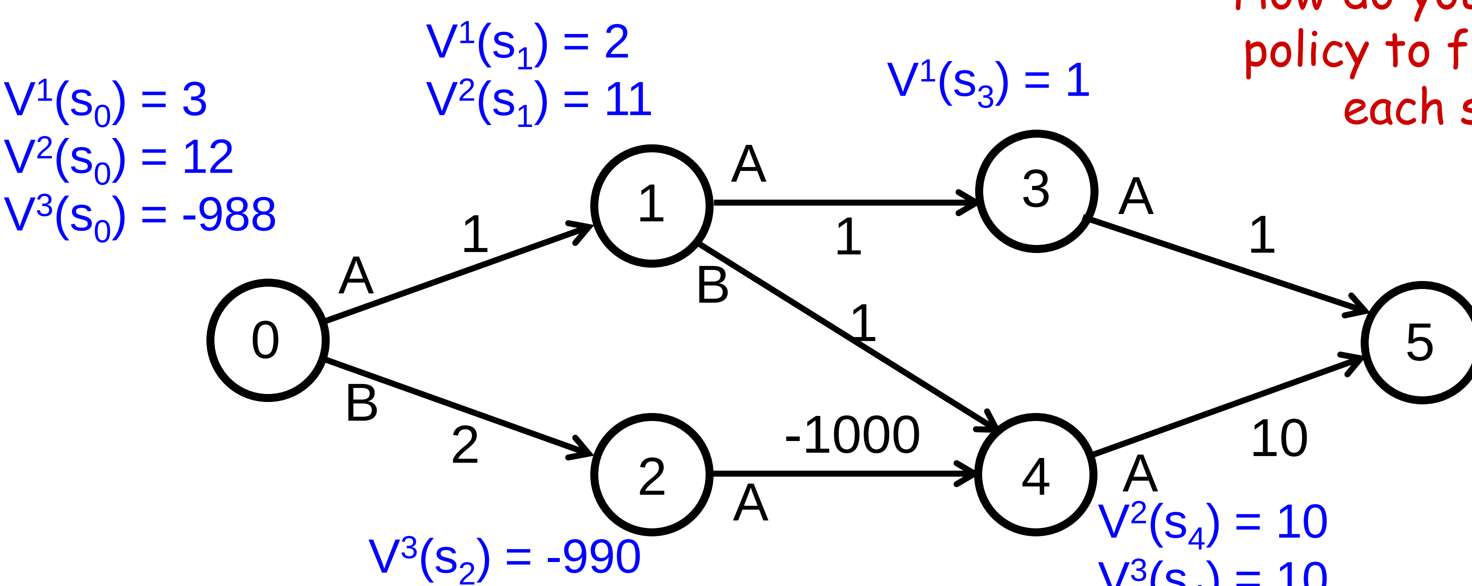
Policy 3: 0 →2 →4 →5 = 2 – 1000 + 10 = -988



Value Functions

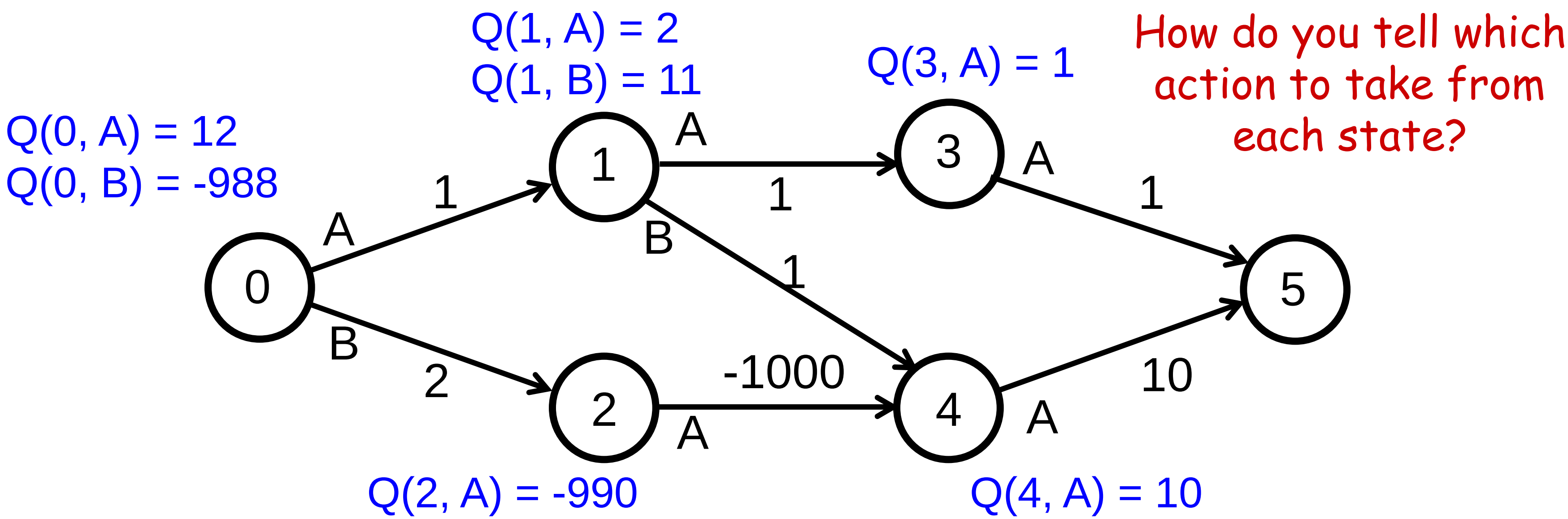
- We can associate a value with each state
  - For a fixed policy
  - How good is it to run policy π from that state s
  - This is the state value function, V

How do you tell which policy to follow from each state?



Q Functions

- Define value without specifying the policy
  - Specify the value of taking action A from state S and then performing optimally, thereafter



Value Functions

- So, we have two value functions

s' is the
next state

a' is the
next action

$$V^{\pi}(s) = R(s, \pi(s), s') + V^{\pi}(s')$$

$$Q(s, a) = R(s, a, s') + \max_{a'} Q(s', a')$$

- Both have the same form
  - Next reward plus the best I can do from the next state

Value Functions

- These can be extend to probabilistic actions

  (for when the results of an action are not certain, or when a policy is probabilistic)

$$V^{\pi}(s) = \sum_{s'} P(s' | s, \pi(s))\left(R(s, \pi(s), s') + V^{\pi}(s')\right)$$

$$Q(s,a) = \sum_{s'} P(s' | s,a)\left(R(s,a,s') + \max_{a'} Q(s',a')\right)$$

Getting the Policy

- If we have the value function, then finding the optimal policy, $\pi^*(s)$, is easy…just find the policy that maximized value

$$\pi^*(s) = \arg\max_a (R(s, a, s') + V^\pi(s'))$$

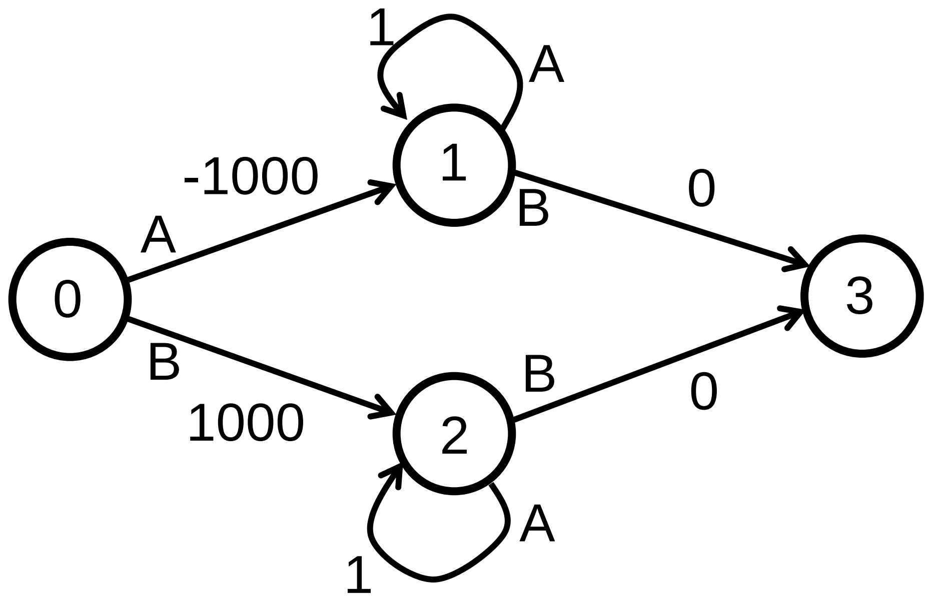
$$\pi^*(s) = \arg\max_a Q(s, a)$$

Problems with Our Functions

- Consider this MDP
  - Number of steps is now unlimited because of loops
  - Value of states 1 and 2 is infinite for some policies

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q(1, A) &= 1 + Q(1, A) \\
&= 1 + 1 + Q(1, A) \\
&= 1 + 1 + 1 + Q(1, A) \\
&= \ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

- This is bad
  - All policies with a non-zero reward cycle have infinite value



Better Value Functions

- Introduce the ***discount factor*** γ, to get around the problem of infinite value
  - Three interpretations
    - Probability of living to see the next time step
    - Measure of the uncertainty inherent in the world
    - Makes the mathematics work out nicely

Assume $0 \leq \gamma \leq 1$

$$V^{\pi}(s) = R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma V^{\pi}(s')$$

$$Q(s, a) = R(s, a, s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a')$$

Better Value Functions

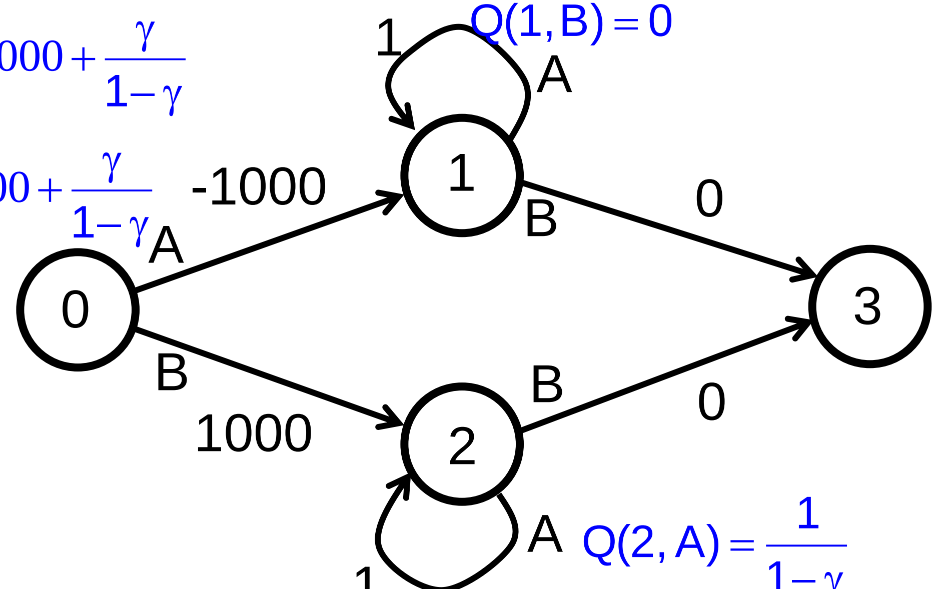
Value now depends on the discount, γ

$$Q(0,A) = -1000 + \frac{\gamma}{1-\gamma}$$

$$Q(1,B) = 1000 + \frac{\gamma}{1-\gamma}$$

$$Q(1,A) = \frac{1}{1-\gamma}$$

$$Q(1,B) = 0$$



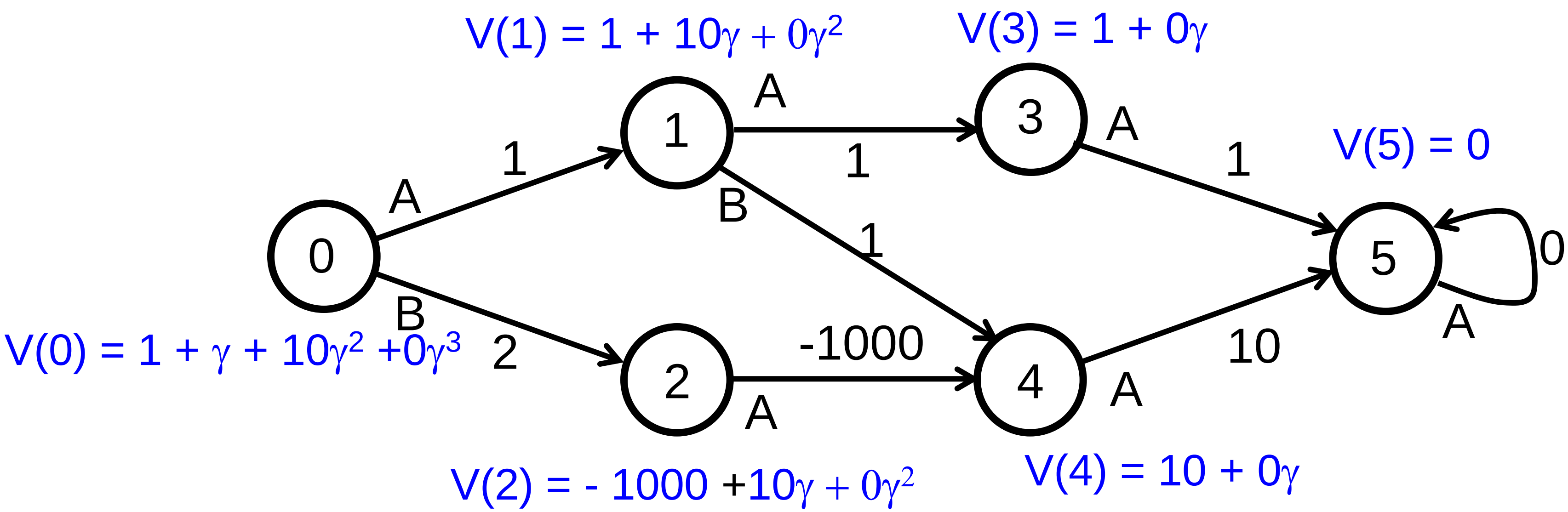
$$Q(2,A) = \frac{1}{1-\gamma}$$

$$Q(2,B) = 0$$

- Optimal Policy:
  - $\pi(0) = B$
  - $\pi(1) = A$
  - $\pi(2) = A$

Dynamic Programming

- Given the complete MDP model, we can compute the optimal value function directly



[Bertsekas, 87, 95a, 95b]

Reinforcement Learning

- What happens if we don’t have the whole MDP?
  - We know the states and actions
  - We don’t have the system model (transition function) or reward function
- We’re only allowed to sample from the MDP
  - Can observe experiences (s, a, r, s’)
  - Need to perform actions to generate new experiences
- This is Reinforcement Learning (RL)
  - Sometimes called Approximate Dynamic Programming (ADP)

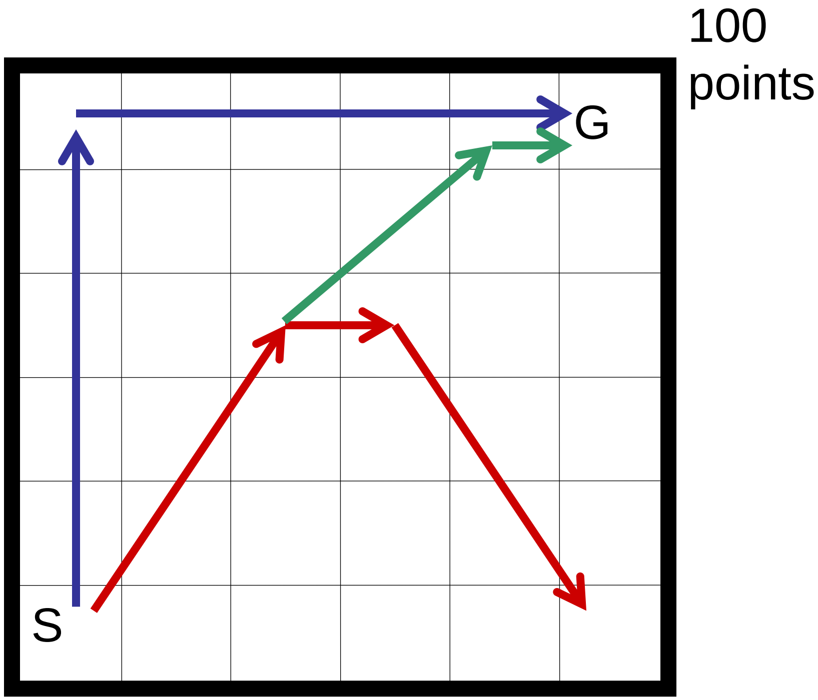
Learning Value Functions

- We still want to learn a value function
  - We're forced to approximate it iteratively
  - Based on direct experience of the world
- Four main algorithms
  - Certainty equivalence
  - TD λ learning
  - Q-learning
  - SARSA

Certainty Equivalence

- Collect experience by moving through the world
  - $s_0, a_0, r_1, s_1, a_1, r_2, s_2, a_2, r_3, s_3, a_3, r_4, s_4, a_4, r_5, s_5, \ldots$
- Use these to estimate the underlying MDP
  - Transition function, T: $S \times A \rightarrow S$
  - Reward function, R: $S \times A \times S \rightarrow \Re$
- Compute the optimal value function for this MDP
- And then compute the optimal policy from it

How are we going to do this?



- Reward whole policies?
  - That could be a pain
- What about incremental rewards?
  - Everything has a reward of 0 except for the goal
- Now what???

Exploration vs. Exploitation

- We want to pick good actions most of the time, but also do some exploration
- Exploring means we can learn better policies
- But, we want to balance known good actions with exploratory ones
- This is called the **exploration/exploitation** problem

On-Policy vs. Off Policy

- On-policy algorithms
  - Final policy is influenced by the exploration policy
  - Generally, the exploration policy needs to be “close” to the final policy
  - Can get stuck in local maxima

Given enough experience

- Off-policy algorithms
  - Final policy is independent of exploration policy
  - Can use arbitrary exploration policies
  - Will not get stuck in local maxima

Picking Actions

ε-greedy

- Pick best (greedy) action with probability ε
- Otherwise, pick a random action

- Boltzmann (Soft-Max)
  - Pick an action based on its Q-value

$$P(a|s) = \frac{e^{\left(\frac{Q(s,a)}{\tau}\right)}}{\sum_{a'} e^{\left(\frac{Q(s,a')}{\tau}\right)}}$$

…where τ is the "temperature"

TD(λ)

- TD-learning estimates the value function directly
  - Don't try to learn the underlying MDP

[Sutton, 88]

- Keep an estimate of $V^{\pi}(s)$ in a table
  - Update these estimates as we gather more experience
  - Estimates depend on exploration policy, π
  - TD is an on-policy method

TD(0)-Learning Algorithm

- Initialize $V^{\pi}(s)$ to 0
- Make a (possibly randomly created) policy π
- For each 'episode' (episode = series of actions)
  1. Observe state s
  2. Perform action according to the policy $\pi(s)$
  3. $V(s) \leftarrow (1-\alpha)V(s) + \alpha[r + \gamma V(s')]$
  4. $s \leftarrow s'$
  5. Repeat until out of actions
- Update policy given newly learned values
- Start a new episode

r = reward
α= learning rate
γ= discount factor

Note: this formulation is from Sutton & Barto's "Reinforcement Learning"

(Tabular) TD-Learning Algorithm

1. Initialize $V^{\pi}(s)$ to 0, and $e(s) = 0 \forall s$
2. Observe state, s
3. Perform action according to the policy $\pi(s)$
4. Observe new state, s', and reward, r
5. $\delta \leftarrow r + \gamma V^{\pi}(s') - V^{\pi}(s)$
6. $e(s) \leftarrow e(s)+1$
7. For all states j

   $V^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow V^{\pi}(s) + \alpha\, \delta e(j)$

   $e(j) \leftarrow \gamma\lambda e(s)$
8. Go to 2

γ = future returns discount factor
λ = eligibility discount
α = learning rate

TD-Learning

- $V^{\pi}(s)$ is guaranteed to converge to $V^{*}(s)$
  - After an infinite number of experiences
  - If we decay the learning rate

$$\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \alpha_t = \infty \qquad \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \alpha_t^{\,2} < \infty$$

$$\alpha_t = \frac{c}{c+t}$$ will work

- In practice, we often don't need value convergence
  - Policy convergence generally happens sooner

SARSA

- SARSA iteratively approximates the state-action value function, Q
  - Like Q-learning, SARSA learns the policy and the value function simultaneously
- Keep an estimate of Q(s, a) in a table
  - Update these estimates based on experiences
  - Estimates depend on the exploration policy
  - SARSA is an on-policy method
  - Policy is derived from current value estimates

SARSA Algorithm

1. Initialize $Q(s, a)$ to small random values, $\forall s, a$
2. Observe state, s
3. $a \leftarrow \pi(s)$ (pick action according to policy)
4. Observe next state, s', and reward, r
5. $Q(s, a) \leftarrow (1-\alpha)Q(s, a) + \alpha(r + \gamma Q(s', \pi(s')))$
6. Go to 2

- $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ is the learning rate
  - We should decay this, just like TD

Q-Learning

[Watkins & Dayan, 92]

- Q-learning iteratively approximates the state-action value function, Q
  - We won't estimate the MDP directly
  - Learns the value function and policy simultaneously

- Keep an estimate of Q(s, a) in a table
  - Update these estimates as we gather more experience
  - Estimates do not depend on exploration policy
  - Q-learning is an off-policy method

Q-Learning Algorithm

1. Initialize $Q(s, a)$ to small random values, $\forall s, a$

   (what if you make them 0? What if they are big?)

2. Observe state, s
3. Randomly (or ε greedy) pick action, a
4. Observe next state, s', and reward, r
5. $Q(s, a) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha)Q(s, a) + \alpha(r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a'))$
6. $s \leftarrow s'$
7. Go to 2

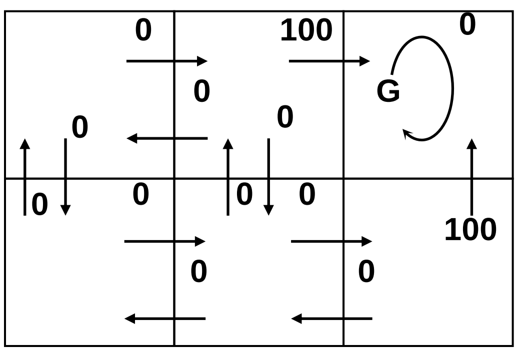
$0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ is the learning rate & we should decay α, just like in TD

Note: this formulation is from Sutton & Barto's "Reinforcement Learning"

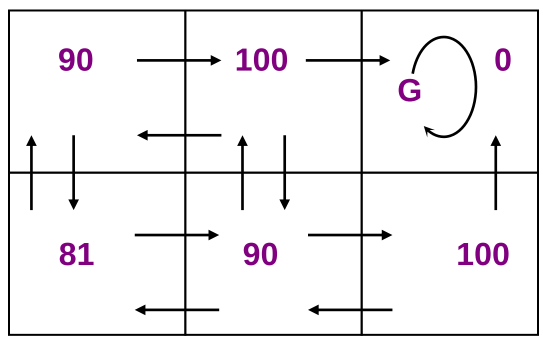
This is not identical to Mitchell's formulation, which does not use learning rate.

Q-learning

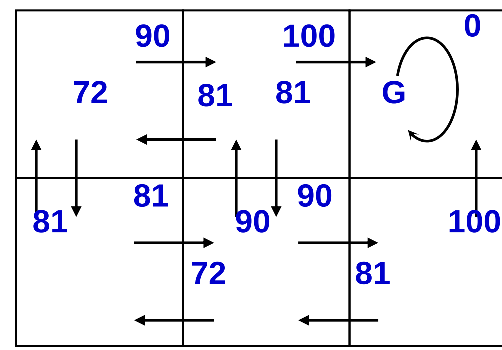
- Q-learning, learns the expected utility of taking a particular action **a** in state **s**



***r*(*state*, *action*)**
immediate reward values



V*(*state*) values**



***Q*(*state*, *action*) values**

Convergence Guarantees

- The convergence guarantees for RL are “in the limit”
  – The word “infinite” crops up several times
- Don’t let this put you off
  – Value convergence is different than policy convergence
  – We’re more interested in policy convergence
  – If one action is significantly better than the others, policy convergence will happen relatively quickly

Rewards

- Rewards measure how well the policy is doing
  - Often correspond to events in the world
    - Current load on a machine
    - Reaching the coffee machine
    - Program crashing
  - Everything else gets a 0 reward

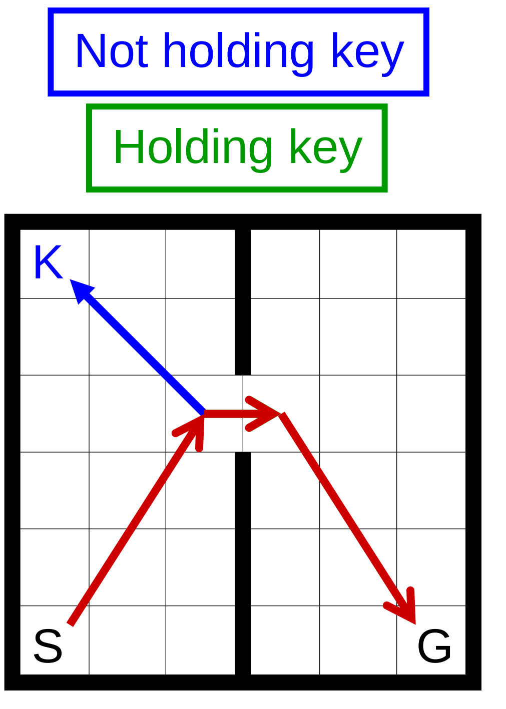
These are sparse rewards

- Things work better if the rewards are incremental
  - For example, distance to goal at each step
  - These reward functions are often hard to design

These are dense rewards

The Markov Property

- RL needs a set of states that are Markov
  - Everything you need to know to make a decision is included in the state
  - Not allowed to consult the past
- Rule-of-thumb
  - If you can calculate the reward function from the state without any additional information, you're OK



But, What's the Catch?

- RL will solve all of your problems, but
  - We need lots of experience to train from
  - Taking random actions can be dangerous
  - It can take a long time to learn
  - Not all problems fit into the MDP framework

Learning Policies Directly

- An alternative approach to RL is to reward whole policies, rather than individual actions
  - Run whole policy, then receive a single reward
  - Reward measures success of the whole policy
- If there are a small number of policies, we can exhaustively try them all
  - However, this is not possible in most interesting problems

Policy Gradient Methods

- Assume that our policy, p, has a set of n real-valued parameters, q = {q_1, q_2, q_3, ... , q_n }
  - Running the policy with a particular q results in a reward, r_q
  - Estimate the reward gradient, $\frac{\partial R}{\partial \theta_i}$, for each q_i

$$\theta_i \leftarrow \theta_i + \alpha \frac{\partial R}{\partial \theta_i}$$

This is another learning rate

Policy Gradient Methods

- This results in hill-climbing in policy space
  - So, it’s subject to all the problems of hill-climbing
  - But, we can also use tricks from search, like random restarts and momentum terms

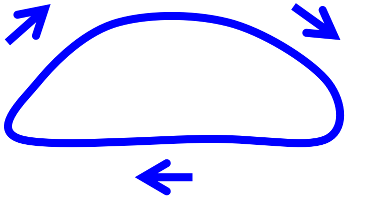
- This is a good approach if you have a parameterized policy
  - Typically faster than value-based methods
  - “Safe” exploration, if you have a good policy
  - Learns locally-best parameters *for that policy*

An Example: Learning to Walk

[Kohl & Stone, 04]

- RoboCup legged league
  - Walking quickly is a *big* advantage

- Robots have a parameterized gait controller
  - 11 parameters
  - Controls step length, height, etc.



- Robots walk across soccer pitch and are timed
  - Reward is a function of the time taken

An Example: Learning to Walk

- Basic idea

1. Pick an initial $\theta = \{\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_{11}\}$
2. Generate N testing parameter settings by perturbing θ

   $\theta^j = \{\theta_1 + \delta_1, \theta_2 + \delta_2, \ldots, \theta_{11} + \delta_{11}\}, \quad \delta_i \in \{-\varepsilon, 0, \varepsilon\}$
3. Test each setting, and observe rewards

   $\theta^j \rightarrow r_j$
4. For each $\theta_i \in \theta$

   Calculate $\theta_1^+, \theta_1^0, \theta_1^-$ and set $\theta'_i \leftarrow \theta_i + \begin{cases} \delta & \text{if } \theta_i^+ \text{ largest} \\ 0 & \text{if } \theta_i^0 \text{ largest} \\ -\delta & \text{if } \theta_i^- \text{ largest} \end{cases}$
5. Set $\theta \leftarrow \theta'$, and go to 2

Average reward when $q^n_i = q_i - d_i$

An Example: Learning to Walk

Initial

Final

http://utopia.utexas.edu/media/features/av.qtl

Video: Nate Kohl & Peter Stone, UT Austin

Value Function or Policy Gradient?

- When should I use policy gradient?
  - When there’s a parameterized policy
  - When there’s a high-dimensional state space
  - When we expect the gradient to be smooth

- When should I use a value-based method?
  - When there is no parameterized policy
  - When we have no idea how to solve the problem